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Forty-eighth session
Agenda item 73 (c)

REVIEW OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE RECOMMENDATIONS AND DECISIONS ADOPTED BY THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY AT ITS TENTH SPECIAL SESSION

Status of multilateral disarmament agreements

Report of the Secretary-General

1. The General Assembly, by its resolution 36/92 H of 9 December 1981, inter alia, requested the Secretary-General to prepare for each regular session of the Assembly a composite table of signatories of and parties to multilateral disarmament agreements with a view to enabling the Assembly to take up the question of their status, if it were deemed appropriate.

2. Pursuant to that resolution, the Secretary-General submits in the annex to the present report an updated composite table of signatories of and parties to multilateral disarmament agreements, as reported by the depositaries of those agreements, as at 31 July 1993. 1/

Notes

1/ The information contained in the present report reproduces data furnished by the Secretary-General where he is the depositary of the treaties or agreements concerned and by those Governments which are depositaries in other cases. Inclusion of information as to the treaties and agreements of which the Secretary-General is not the depositary is as reported by the respective depositaries.

The Secretary-General is the depositary of (a) the Convention on the Prohibition of Military or Any Other Hostile Use of Environmental Modification Techniques, (b) the Agreement Governing the Activities of States on the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies, (c) the Convention on Prohibitions or Restrictions on the Use of Certain Conventional Weapons Which May Be Deemed to Be Excessively Injurious or to Have Indiscriminate Effects, and (d) the Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling and Use of Chemical Weapons and on Their Destruction.

Notes (continued)

Canada and Hungary are depositaries of the Treaty on Open Skies.

France is the depositary of the Protocol for the Prohibition of the Use in War of Asphyxiating, Poisonous or Other Gases, and of Bacteriological Methods of Warfare.

Mexico is the depositary of the Treaty for the Prohibition of Nuclear Weapons in Latin America and the Caribbean (Treaty of Tlatelolco).

The Netherlands is the depositary of the Treaty on Conventional Armed Forces in Europe (CFE Treaty).

The Russian Federation, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the United States of America are depositaries of (a) the Treaty Banning Nuclear Weapon Tests in the Atmosphere, in Outer Space and under Water, (b) the Treaty on Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space, including the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies, (c) the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, (d) the Treaty on the Prohibition of the Emplacement of Nuclear Weapons and Other Weapons of Mass Destruction on the Seabed and the Ocean Floor and in the Subsoil Thereof, and (e) the Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxin Weapons and on Their Destruction.

The United States of America is the depositary of the Antarctic Treaty.

The Secretary-General of the South Pacific Forum Secretariat is the depositary of the South Pacific Nuclear Free Zone Treaty (Treaty of Rarotonga).

ANNEX

Composite table of signatories of and parties to multilateral disarmament agreements as at 31 July 1993, as reported by depositaries

(s) signed, (r) ratified (including accessions and succession)

Signatory or Party reported	Geneva Protocol	Antarctic Treaty	Partial Test Ban	Outer Space	Treaty of Tlatelolco	NPT	Seabed	BW Convention	ENMOD	Celestial Bodies	Inhumane Weapons a/	Rarotonga	CFE Treaty	Open Skies	Chemical Weapons
Afghanistan	r		s r	s r		s r	s r	s r	r		s				s
Albania	r					r		r							s
Algeria	r		s	r			r		r						s
Andorra															
Angola	r														
Antigua and Barbuda	r		r	r	s r	r	r		r						
Argentina	r	s r	s r	s r	s		s r	s r	r		s				s
Armenia						r							r		s
Australia	r	s r	s r	s r		s r	s r	s r	s r	r	s r	s r			s
Austria	s r	r	s r	s r		s r	s r	s r	r	s r	s r				s
Azerbaijan						r							r		s
Bahamas			r	r	s r	r	r	r							
Bahrain	r					r		r							s
Bangladesh	r		r	r		r		r	r						s
Barbados	r			r	s r	s r		s r							
Belarus			s r	s r		r	s r	s r	s r		s r		r	s	s
Belgium	s r	s r	s r	s r		s r	s r	s r	s r		s		s r	s	s
Belize					s	r		r							
Benin	r		s r	r		s r	s r	s r	s r		r (I and III)				s
Bhutan	r		r			r		r							
Bolivia	r		s r	s	s r	s r	s	s r	s						s
Bosnia and Herzegovina															

/...

Signatory or Party reported	Geneva Protocol	Antarctic Treaty	Partial Test Ban	Outer Space	Treaty of Tlatelolco	NPT	Seabed	BW Convention	ENMOD	Celestial Bodies	Inhumane Weapons a/	Reservations	CFE Treaty	Open Skies	Chemical Weapons
Botswana			r	s		s r	s r	s r							
Brazil	s r	r	s r	s r	s r b/	r	s r	s r	s r						s
Brunei Darussalam						r		r							s
Bulgaria	s r	r	s r	s r		s r	s r	s r	s r		s r		s r	s	s
Burkina Faso	r		s	s r		s r		r							s
Burundi			s	s		r	s	s							s
Cambodia	r					r	s	s r							s
Cameroon	r		s	s		s r	s								s
Canada	s r	r	s r	s r		s r	s r	s r	s r		s		s r	s r	s
Cape Verde	r		r			r	r	r	r						s
Central African Republic	r		r	s		r	s r	s							s
Chad			s r			s r									
Chile	s r	s r	s r	s r	s r b/			s r		s r					s
China	r	r		r	s r (A.P.II) c/	r	r	r			s r	s r (P.2.3) d/			s
Colombia		r	s r	s	s r	s r	s	s r							s
Comoros															s
Congo						r	r	r							s
Cook Islands												s r			s
Costa Rica			s r		s r	s r	s	s r							s
Cote d'Ivoire	r		s r			s r	r	s							s
Croatia			r			r		r							s
Cuba	r	r		r			r	s r	s r		s r				s
Cyprus	r		s r	s r		s r	s r	s r	s r		r				s
Czech Republic e/	r	r	r	r		r	r	r	r		r		r	r	s
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	r	r				r		r	r						
Denmark	s r	r	s r	s r		s r	s r	s r	s r		s r		s r	s r	s

Signatory or Party reported	Geneva Protocol	Antarctic Treaty	Partial Test Ban	Outer Space	Treaty of Tlatelolco	NPT	Seabed	BW Convention	ENMOD	Celestial Bodies	Inhumane Weapons a/	Rarotonga	CFE Treaty	Open Skies	Chemical Weapons
Djibouti															
Dominica					s r b/	r			r						
Dominican Republic	r		s r	s r	s r	s r	s r	s r							s
Ecuador	r	r	s r	s r	s r	s r		s r			s r				s
Egypt	s r		s r	s r		s r		s	r		s				
El Salvador	s		s r	s r	s r	s r		s r							s
Equatorial Guinea	r		r	r		r	s	r							s
Eritrea															
Estonia	r					r		r							s
Ethiopia	s r		s	s		s r	s r	s r	s						s
Fiji	r		r	r		r		s r				s r	--		s r
Finland	s r	r	s r	s r		s r	s r	s r	s r		s r				s
France	s r	s r		s r	s r (A.P.I and II)	r		r		s	s r (I and II)		s r	*	s
Gabon			s r			r		s							s
Gambia	r		r	s		s r	s	s							s
Georgia													r	s	s
Germany	s r	r	s r	s r		s r	s r	s r	s r		s r		s r	s	s
Ghana	r		s r	s		s r	s r	s r	s r						s
Greece	s r	r	s r	s r		s r	s r	s r	r		s r		s r	s	s
Grenada	r				s r	r		r							
Guatemala	r	r	s r		s r	s r	s	s r	r	s	r				s
Guinea						r	s								s
Guinea-Bissau	r		r	r		r	r	r							s
Guyana				s				s							
Haiti			s	s	s r	s r		s							s
Holy See	r			s		r			s						s

Signatory or Party reported	Geneva Protocol	Antarctic Treaty	Partial Test Ban	Outer Space	Treaty of Tlatelolco	NPT	Seabed	BW Convention	ENMOD	Celestial Bodies	Inhumane Weapons a/	Rarotonga	CFE Treaty	Open Skies	Chemical Weapons
Honduras			a r	a	a r	a r	a	a r							a
Hungary	r	r	a r	a r		a r	a r	a r	a r		a r		a r	a	a
Iceland	r		a r	a r		a r	a r	a r	a		a		a r	a r	a
India	a r	r	a r	a r			r	a r	a r	a	a r				a
Indonesia	r		a r	a		a r		a r							a
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	r		a r	a		a r	a r	a r	a						a
Iraq	r		a r	a r		a r	a r	a r	a						
Ireland	r		a r	a r		a r	a r	a r	a r		a				a
Israel	r		a r	a r											a
Italy	a r	r	a r	a r		a r	a r	a r	a r		a		a r	a	a
Jamaica	r		a r	a r	a r	a r	a r	r							
Japan	a r	a r	a r	a r		a r	a r	a r	r		a r				a
Jordan	r		a r	a		a r	a r	a r							
Kazakhstan													r		a
Kenya	r		r	r		a r		r							a
Kiribati						r						a r			
Kuwait	r		a r	r		a r		a r	r						a
Kyrgyzstan														a	a
Lao People's Democratic Republic	r		a r	a r		a r	a r	a r	a r		r				a
Latvia	r					r	r				r				a
Lebanon	r		a r	a r		a r	a	a r	a						
Lesotho	r			a		a r	a r	a r							
Liberia	r		a r			a r	a	a	a						a
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	r		a r	r		a r	r	r							
Liechtenstein	r					r	r	r			a r				a
Lithuania	r					r									a

Signatory or Party reported	Geneva Protocol	Antarctic Treaty	Partial Test Ban	Outer Space	Treaty of Tlatelolco	NPT	Seabed	BW Convention	ENMOD	Celestial Bodies	Inhumane Weapons a/	Rarotonga	CFE Treaty	Open Skies	Chemical Weapons
Luxembourg	s r		s r	s		s r	s r	s r	s		s		s r	s	s
Madagascar	r		s r	r		s r	s	s							s
Malawi	r		r			r		s	r						s
Malaysia	r		s r	s		s r	s r	s r							s
Maldives	r					s r									
Mali			s	r		s r	s	s							s
Malta	r		r			s r	s r	s r							s
Marshall Islands															s
Mauritania			s r												s
Mauritius	r		r	r		s r	s r	s r	r						s r
Mexico	r		s r	s r	s r	s r	r	s r		r	s r				s
Micronesia (Federated States of)															s
Monaco	r														s
Mongolia	r		s r	s r		s r	s r	s r	s r		s r				s
Morocco	r		s r	r		s r	s r	s	s	s r	s				s
Mozambique						r									
Myanmar			s r	s r		r	s	s							s
Namibia						r									s
Nauru						r						s r			s
Nepal	r		s r	s r		s r	s r	s							s
Netherlands	s r	r	s r	s r	s r (A.P.I)	s r	s r	s r	s r	s r	s r		s r	s	s
New Zealand	r	s r	s r	s r		s r	s r	s r	r		s	s r			s
Nicaragua	s r		s r	s	s r	s r	s r	s r	s		s				s
Niger	r		s r	s r		r	s r	s r	r		r				s
Nigeria	r		s r	r		s r		s r			s				s
Niue												s r			

Signatory or Party reported	Geneva Protocol	Antarctic Treaty	Partial Test Ban	Outer Space	Treaty of Tlatelolco	NPT	Seabed	BW Convention	ENMOD	Celestial Bodies	Inhumane Weapons a/	Rarotonga	CFE Treaty	Open Skies	Chemical Weapons
Norway	s r	s r	s r	s r		s r	s r	s r	s r		s r		s r	s	s
Oman								r							s
Pakistan	r		s r	s r				s r	r	r	s r				s
Panama	r		s r	s	s r	s r	s r	s r							s
Papua New Guinea	r	r	r	r		r		r	r			s r			s
Paraguay	r		s		s r	s r	s	r							s
Peru	r	r	s r	s r	s r	s r		s r		s					s
Philippines	r		s r	s		s r		s r		s r	s				s
Poland	s r	r	s r	s r		s r	s r	s r	s r		s r		s r	s	s
Portugal	s r		s			r	r	s r	s		s		s r	s	s
Qatar	r					r	r	s r							s
Republic of Korea	r	r	s r	s r		s r	s r	s r	r						s
Republic of Moldova													r		s
Romania	s r	r	s r	s r		s r	s r	s r	s r	s	s		s r	s	s
Russian Federation	r	s r	s r	s r	s r (A.P.II)	s r	s r	s r	s r		s r	s r (P.2/3)	s r	s	s
Rwanda	r		s r	s		r	s r	s r							s
Saint Kitts and Nevis	r					r		r							
Saint Lucia	r				s	r		r	r						s
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines					s r	r									
Samoa			s r			r						s r			s
San Marino			s r	s r		s r		s r							s
Sao Tome and Principe						r	r	r	r						
Saudi Arabia	r			r		r	s r	s r							s
Senegal	r		s r			s r	s	s r							s

Signatory or Party reported	Geneva Protocol	Antarctic Treaty	Partial Test Ban	Outer Space	Treaty of Tlatelolco	NPT	Seabed	BW Convention	ENMOD	Celestial Bodies	Inhumane Weapons a/	Rarotonga	CFE Treaty	Open Skies	Chemical Weapons
Seychelles			r	r		r	r	r							r
Sierra Leone	r		r	r		r		r							
Singapore			r	r		r	r	r							
Slovakia c/		r	r	r		r	r	r	r		r		r	r	
Slovenia			r			r	r	r			r				
Solomon Islands	r					r	r	r	r			r			
Somalia						r									
South Africa	r	r	r	r		r	r	r							
Spain	r	r	r	r		r	r	r	r				r	r	
Sri Lanka	r		r	r		r		r	r						
Sudan	r		r			r									
Suriname	r		r		r	r		r							
Swaziland	r		r			r	r	r							
Sweden	r	r	r	r		r	r	r	r		r				r
Switzerland	r	r	r	r		r	r	r	r		r				
Syrian Arab Republic	r		r	r		r									
Tajikistan															
Thailand	r		r	r		r		r							
The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia															
Togo	r		r	r		r	r	r							
Tonga	r		r	r		r		r							
Trinidad and Tobago	r		r		r	r									
Tunisia	r		r	r		r	r	r	r		r				

Signatory or Party reported	Geneva Protocol	Antarctic Treaty	Partial Test Ban	Outer Space	Treaty of Tlatelolco	NPT	Seabed	BW Convention	ENMOD	Celestial Bodies	Inhumane Weapons a/	Rarotonga	CFE Treaty	Open Skies	Chemical Weapons
Turkey	a r		a r	a r		a r	a r	a r	a		a		a r	a	a
Turkmenistan															
Tuvalu						r						a r			
Uganda	r		a r	r		r		r	a						a
Ukraine		r	a r	a r			a r	a r	a r		a r			a	a
United Arab Emirates								a							a
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	a r	a r	a r	a r	a r (A.P.I and II)	a r	a r	a r	a r		a		a r	a	a
United Republic of Tanzania	r		a r			r	a	a							
United States of America	a r	a r	a r	a r	a r (A.P.I and II)	a r	a r	a r	a r		a		a r	a	a
Uruguay	a r	r	a r	a r	a r	a r	a	r		a r					a
Uzbekistan						r			r						
Vanuatu															
Venezuela	a r		a r	a r	a r	a r		a r							a
Viet Nam	r			r		r	r	r	r		a				a
Yemen	r		a r	r		a r	a r	a r	a r						a
Yugoslavia	a r		a r	a		a r	a r	a r			a r				
Zaire			a r	a		a r		a r	a						a
Zambia			r	r		r	r								a
Zimbabwe						r		r							a

a/ Protocols I, II and III have been accepted except where noted otherwise.

b/ Party has not waived requirements under article 28 of the Treaty.

c/ A.P. means Additional Protocol to the Treaty of Tlatelolco.

d/ P. means Protocol to the Treaty of Rarotonga.

e/ The Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic, as successor States to the Czech and Slovak Federal Republic, have informed the depositaries that they consider themselves bound, as of 1 January 1993, the date of dissolution of the Czech and Slovak Federal Republic, by multilateral international treaties to which the Czech and Slovak Federal Republic was a party on that date, including reservations and declarations to their provisions made earlier by the Czech and Slovak Federal Republic.

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CONVENTION ON PROHIBITIONS OR RESTRICTIONS ON THE USE OF CERTAIN CONVENTIONAL WEAPONS WHICH MAY BE DEEMED TO BE EXCESSIVELY INJURIOUS OR TO HAVE INDISCRIMINATE EFFECTS

Report of the Secretary-General

1. By resolution 47/56 of 9 December 1992, the General Assembly, having recalled with satisfaction the adoption, on 10 October 1980, of the Convention on Prohibitions or Restrictions on the Use of Certain Conventional Weapons Which May Be Deemed to Be Excessively Injurious or to Have Indiscriminate Effects, 1/ together with the Protocol on Non-Detectable Fragments (Protocol I), 1/ the Protocol on Prohibitions or Restrictions on the Use of Mines, Booby Traps and Other Devices (Protocol II) 1/ and the Protocol on Prohibitions or Restrictions on the Use of Incendiary Weapons (Protocol III); 1/ having reaffirmed its conviction that general agreement on the prohibition or restriction of use of specific conventional weapons would significantly reduce the suffering of civilian populations and of combatants, and having taken note with satisfaction of the report of the Secretary-General submitted to the General Assembly at its forty-fourth session (A/44/569); noted with satisfaction that, consequent upon the fulfilment of the conditions set out in article 5 of the Convention, the Convention and the three Protocols annexed thereto entered into force on 2 December 1983; urged all States that had not yet done so to exert their best endeavours to become parties to the Convention and the Protocols annexed thereto as early as possible, so as ultimately to obtain universality of adherence; noted that, under article 8 of the Convention, conferences may be convened to consider amendments to the Convention or any of the annexed Protocols; and requested the Secretary-General as depositary of the Convention and its three annexed Protocols to inform the General Assembly from time to time of the state of adherence to the Convention and its Protocols.

2. Pursuant to the request of the General Assembly, the actions with respect to the Convention and the three Protocols for the period under review, that is, from 1 September 1989 to 31 August 1993, are indicated in the annex to the present report.

3. The Convention was signed by 53 countries and, as of 31 August 1993, 27 countries had ratified it, 2 had accepted it, 6 had acceded to it, and 2 had succeeded to it. Instruments for those actions were accompanied by acceptances of the Protocols annexed to the Convention.

4. In a letter, dated 9 February 1993, addressed to the Secretary-General of the United Nations, depositary of the Convention, the Government of France, considering "of the utmost importance that Protocol II to the Convention, be substantially amended so as to lay down provisions on the verification of facts that may be alleged and that would constitute violations of the undertakings entered into, as well as on the penalties to be stipulated in the event of such violations", and pursuant to article 8, paragraph 3 (a), of the Convention, which provides that "if, after a period of 10 years following the entry into force of this Convention, no conference has been convened ... any High Contracting Parties shall be invited to review the scope and operation of this Convention and the Protocols annexed thereto and to consider any proposal for amendments of this Convention or of the existing Protocols", requested the Secretary-General to convene the High Contracting Parties of the Convention, as soon as possible after 2 December 1993, the date on which the 10-year period will have expired.

5. The Office for Disarmament Affairs, on behalf of the Secretary-General, Depositary of the Convention, has informally transmitted the text of the communication received from the Government of France to the High Contracting Parties to the Convention.

6. Following past practice, however, a decision concerning the convening of a review conference and its preparation would be taken by the General Assembly under agenda item 75, entitled "Convention on Prohibitions or Restrictions on the Use of Certain Conventional Weapons Which May Be Deemed to Be Excessively Injurious or to Have Indiscriminate Effects".

Notes

1/ A/CONF.95/15 and Corr.2, annex I. For the printed text of the Convention and its Protocols, see The United Nations Disarmament Yearbook, vol. 5: 1980 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.81.IX.4), appendix VII.

ANNEX

Actions in respect of the Convention on Prohibitions or Restrictions on the Use of Certain Conventional Weapons Which May Be Deemed to Be Excessively Injurious or to Have Indiscriminate Effects and its three Protocols during the period from 1 September 1989 to 31 August 1993

State	Ratification, acceptance (A) approval (AA) or accession (a) succession (d)	Acceptance pursuant to article 4 paragraphs 3 and 4 Protocols		
		I	II	III
Germany	25 November 1992	x	x	x
Greece	28 January 1992	x	x	x
Niger	10 November 1992 (a)	x	x	x
Slovenia	25 June 1992 (d) a/	x	x	x
Czech Republic	22 February 1993 (d) b/	x	x	x
Latvia	4 January 1993 (a)	x	x	x
Slovak Republic	28 May 1993 (d) b/	x	x	x

a/ Slovenia succeeded to this Convention which had been ratified by Yugoslavia on 24 May 1983, with effect from 25 June 1992, the date on which Slovenia assumed responsibility for its international relations.

b/ The Czech and Slovak Republic succeeded to this Convention, which had been ratified by Czechoslovakia on 31 August 1982, with effect from 1 January 1993, the date on which the Czech Republic and Slovak Republic assumed responsibility for their international relations.

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Forty-eighth session
Agenda item 80

MAINTENANCE OF INTERNATIONAL SECURITY

Report of the Secretary-General

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I. INTRODUCTION

1. The General Assembly, at its forty-seventh session, adopted resolution 47/60 B of 9 December 1992, entitled "Maintenance of international security", in which the Assembly, inter alia, invited all Member States to provide their views on further consideration of the question of maintenance of international security, taking into account, inter alia, appropriate provisions of the reports of the Secretary-General entitled "An Agenda for Peace" and "New dimensions of arms regulation and disarmament in the post-cold war era", and requested the Secretary-General to submit a relevant report to the Assembly at its forty-eighth session.

2. Pursuant to the request of the General Assembly, the Secretary-General addressed a note verbale on 6 April 1993 to the Governments of Member States inviting them to submit, by 30 July 1993, their views in accordance with paragraph 2 of the above-mentioned resolution.

3. To this date, the Secretary-General has received replies from Denmark (on behalf of the European Community and its Member States) and the Dominican Republic. Any further replies will be issued as addenda to the present report.

II. REPLIES RECEIVED FROM GOVERNMENTS

DENMARK

[Original: English]

[30 June 1993]

In this connection the European Community and its member States refer to their views expressed in their statement on "An Agenda for Peace" in the plenary meeting of the United Nations General Assembly on 9 October 1992, 1/ and in their reply, dated 29 January 1993, 2/ to the Secretary-General's report, entitled "New dimensions of arms regulation and disarmament in the post-cold war era". 3/

1/ A/47/PV.31.

2/ A/47/887 and Corr.1.

3/ A/C.1/47/7.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

[Original: Spanish]

[23 August 1993]

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Dominican Republic presents its compliments to the Secretary-General of the United Nations and wishes to acknowledge receipt of his note ODA/11-93/MIS of 6 April 1993, which refers to General Assembly resolution 47/60 B entitled "Maintenance of international security".

In accordance with paragraph 2 of that resolution, the Dominican Government expresses its solidarity and full support to the United Nations in its further consideration of the question of maintenance of international security in the light of the relevant reports of the Secretary-General, particularly "An Agenda for Peace" 4/ and "New dimensions of arms regulation and disarmament in the post-cold war era". 5/

4/ A/47/277-S/24111.

5/ A/C.1/47/7.

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REPORT OF THE UNITED NATIONS HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR REFUGEES, QUESTIONS RELATING TO REFUGEES, RETURNEES AND DISPLACED PERSONS AND HUMANITARIAN QUESTIONS

International Conference on Central American Refugees

Report of the Secretary-General

I. INTRODUCTION

1. In its resolution 47/103 of 16 December 1992 on the International Conference on Central American Refugees, the General Assembly requested the Secretary-General, the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and other organs of the United Nations system to continue their support for and involvement in the planning, implementation, evaluation and follow-up of the programmes generated by the Conference process, and also requested the Secretary-General to report to the Assembly at its forty-eighth session on the implementation of the resolution. The following report is submitted pursuant to this request.

II. THE SITUATION OF UPROOTED CENTRAL AMERICANS

2. The Concerted Plan of Action in favour of Central American Refugees, Returnees and Displaced Persons, adopted at the International Conference on Central American Refugees (CIREFCA), held at Guatemala City from 29 to 31 May 1989 (see A/44/527 and Corr.1 and 2, annex), is now it its fifth and final year. The period since the adoption by the Assembly of resolution 47/103 has been marked by the intensification of efforts by UNHCR to consolidate and, where necessary, achieve durable solutions for uprooted Central Americans, either through local integration in countries of asylum or voluntary repatriation. As a result of progress achieved through the Central American

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* A/48/150 and Corr.1

peace agreements and the CIREFCA process, nearly 100,000 persons are estimated to have repatriated to, or returned to their areas of origin in, El Salvador, Nicaragua and Guatemala since mid-1987. The number of Central American refugees receiving international assistance, which totalled 150,000 in May 1989, has since decreased by some 50 per cent. While provision of reliable data on the number of internally and externally displaced persons remains a difficult task, it is clear that these two groups continue to comprise the majority of CIREFCA target populations. Their protection and assistance needs thus remain an important priority for CIREFCA. It will be recalled that in May 1989, these populations together comprised over 80 per cent of the total of 2 million Central Americans estimated to have been uprooted by the regional conflicts.

3. Following the agreement signed on 8 October 1992 between the Government of Guatemala and the Permanent Commissions of Guatemalan refugees in Mexico, the first organized collective repatriation movement from Mexico of Guatemalan refugees took place in January 1993, with the return of a group of 2,400 persons. This event was an important breakthrough in efforts to find durable solutions for the largest single remaining case-load of Central American refugees. It is anticipated that additional groups of the 50,000 Guatemalan refugees remaining in Mexico will eventually repatriate, including some 7,700 in 1993. Through the $11.6 million repatriation and reintegration programme launched by UNHCR in April 1993, Quick Impact Projects are being implemented in several communities in Guatemala with the aim of meeting their most basic and urgent needs and facilitating social and economic recovery. In Mexico, local integration through CIREFCA projects will continue to be supported for those Guatemalan refugees who do not opt to return.

4. As far as Nicaraguan and Salvadorian refugees are concerned, the major repatriation movements which took place in the first phase of CIREFCA are now completed. Through CIREFCA programmes in the first quarter of 1993, UNHCR supported local integration in countries of asylum (Belize and Costa Rica) and reintegration programmes in countries of origin (El Salvador and Nicaragua). The largest of these, the $12 million Quick Impact Project programme in Nicaragua, concluded in June 1993 and directly benefited 70,000 returnees, demobilized combatants and local populations. A total of 350 Quick Impact Project micro-projects in basic services and productive activities has been implemented since the programme's inception in late 1991.

III. CONTINUED CONTRIBUTION OF CIREFCA TO REGIONAL PEACE AND DEVELOPMENT

5. Through its activities on behalf of uprooted populations, CIREFCA has continued to contribute to regional peace efforts in Central America launched at Esquipulas in 1987 (A/42/521-S/19085, annex) and to benefit from the firm political and financial support of the international community. This support was evidenced by the Conclusion on CIREFCA adopted at the forty-third session of the Executive Committee of the High Commissioner's Programme (A/AC.96/804, para. 28 (e)) in October 1992. On that occasion, the Executive Committee, inter alia, endorsed the efforts of the Central American countries, Belize and Mexico, on behalf of uprooted populations, especially by promoting respect for fundamental protection and human rights principles and through the inclusion of these populations in national development plans. The Committee also approved

new inter-agency arrangements proposed by UNHCR and UNDP for technical support and follow-up of CIREFCA, whereby the "lead agency" role would be conferred on UNDP in mid-1993 for the remaining duration of the Concerted Plan of Action, with the objective of strengthening integration and reintegration processes. During the forty-third session of the Executive Committee, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees stressed that UNHCR operations in Central America would continue throughout and beyond the duration of the Concerted Plan of Action, in line with the mandate of her Office.

6. In 1993, support for CIREFCA was also demonstrated at the Ninth Ministerial Conference between the European Community and its member States and Central America (the "San José IX Summit"), held in San Salvador on 22 and 23 February 1993. On this occasion, the Ministers, in their final Joint Political and Economic Communiqué of the Summit, called, inter alia, for increased resources to be made available for remaining refugee programmes as well as for sustainable development programmes on behalf of returnees and displaced persons in the region, in line with priorities identified by the seven convening countries in the framework of CIREFCA.

IV. FOLLOW-UP OF THE CONCERTED PLAN OF ACTION

7. The renewed commitment of the international community to the objectives and principles of CIREFCA evidenced during the Second International Meeting of the CIREFCA Follow-up Committee held in San Salvador in April 1992 (CIREFCA/CS/92/11), has since been further reflected in the continued cooperation at the international, regional and national levels among convening countries, the donor community, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and the United Nations system. A number of major follow-up activities have been undertaken since the forty-seventh session of the General Assembly.

A. CIREFCA Follow-up Committee

8. The seven convening countries (Belize, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico and Nicaragua), members of the CIREFCA Follow-up Committee, have continued to meet at regular intervals. The Committee's chairmanship was exercised by Nicaragua until October 1992, at which time this function was assumed by El Salvador. As agreed by the seven convening States, Mexico will assume the presidency from August 1993 until the conclusion of the process in May 1994. In these meetings, discussions have included the funding status of CIREFCA projects, the role of NGOs and the strategy/implementation of the human development concept, promoted by UNDP within the context of the transition-to-development stage already under way in certain countries in the region.

B. Involvement by non-governmental organizations in CIREFCA

9. The role of NGOs continues to be important both in terms of project implementation and advocacy on behalf of uprooted Central Americans. Recent activities, invariably pursued through the CIREFCA Support Groups in the various countries, have centred on the role in and contribution of NGOs to integration and reintegration processes involving CIREFCA's four target populations:

refugees, returnees, internally displaced persons and externally displaced persons. In this respect, links between NGOs and UNDP were strengthened as a result of the UNDP/NGO seminar, held in Managua in March 1993, with the participation of some 80 representatives of the Regional Association for Forced Migration (ARMIF), the International Council of Voluntary Agencies (ICVA) and other NGOs working with uprooted populations. Other United Nations agencies, funds and programmes present included UNHCR, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the Pan-American Health Organization (PAHO) and the World Food Programme (WFP). UNDP/NGO cooperation will be further strengthened through similar workshops at the national level.

C. Support by the United Nations system

10. Within the framework of the Joint Task Force created within the United Nations to follow up the CIREFCA process, UNHCR and UNDP have continued to meet and consult with the United Nations Secretariat to coordinate policy within the context of the Secretary-General's continued support for the Central American peace process and the Special Programme of Economic Cooperation for Central America. In mid-April 1993, a high-level meeting of the Joint Task Force took place with the dual purpose of analysing progress in the Central American peace process and finalizing arrangements for the transfer of "lead agency" role from UNHCR to UNDP as of 1 July 1993.

11. As part of those arrangements, a senior UNDP expert has assumed the function of Head of the CIREFCA Joint Support Unit, based in San José, Costa Rica. In line with the specific request addressed to the High Commissioner by the forty-third session of the Executive Committee in October 1992, however, UNHCR will continue to play an active role in technical support and follow-up to CIREFCA until the conclusion of the CIREFCA process. Consequently, the respective financial contributions of UNHCR and UNDP to the Joint Support Unit remain roughly equal.

12. The Joint Support Unit thus continues to maintain close contact with all CIREFCA participants. The Unit maintains contact with the Governments of the seven convening countries in order to provide technical support for projects and organizational support for various CIREFCA activities, including the sessions of the Follow-up Committee and National Support Groups. Regular contacts are also maintained with the donor and NGO community at local/regional level in relation to CIREFCA activities and evolving funding requirements and priorities. Major emphasis in this final consolidation phase of CIREFCA is being laid on training activities for the benefit of all CIREFCA participants. UNHCR has financed two workshops in 1993 on the methodology and implementation of the Quick Impact Projects, based on the experience gained in Nicaragua.

13. A gender-sensitive focus has increased greatly since the holding of the First Regional Forum on a Gender Approach to Work with Refugee, Returnee and Displaced Women in Central America in February 1992 and has become a key aspect of CIREFCA activities. To support this effort, a consultant funded by the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) joined the CIREFCA Joint Support Unit in February 1993. Among the objectives of the consultancy is the preparation of a methodology for the incorporation of due sensitivity to gender issues in the design, implementation and follow-up of new CIREFCA projects and

the establishment of a training plan for officials working with uprooted women. In line with this effort, all UNHCR programmes in Central America have been revised to ensure the full participation of women.

D. Resource mobilization for CIREFCA projects

14. Since the beginning of the CIREFCA process in 1989, a total of 153 projects are recorded in the seven countries, with total external funding requirements of $335.7 million. These figures include both the projects presented by the Follow-up Committee to the international community in its meetings in New York (June 1990) and San Salvador (April 1992) as well as projects and initiatives financed by donors within the framework of CIREFCA. In addition, through the Development Programme for Displaced Persons, Refugees and Repatriated Persons (PRODERE), with its six national projects and three regional subprogrammes, a total of $121.9 million has been committed. The overall funding situation for CIREFCA projects (excluding PRODERE) for the period May 1989 to January 1993 is as follows: a total of $240.1 million has been mobilized, leaving a shortfall of $95 million (28.5 per cent of the total). Estimates on the channelling of CIREFCA funds are as follows: 38 per cent of contributions have been made through NGOs, 32 per cent through Governments of the region, 24 per cent through UNHCR and the remainder through other channels.

15. Given the evolution of the situation of uprooted populations in the region in recent months, the CIREFCA project package is currently being reviewed with a view to presenting donors with updated needs ranked according to priority. As part of this exercise, UNHCR's budgetary requirements (revised 1993 and initial 1994) are presently estimated at $40 million. At the same time, UNDP is making efforts to make multilateral development institutions aware of the need to support the incorporation of CIREFCA populations into long-term development plans.

E. Progress on protection-related issues

16. In line with the stated principles and objectives of the CIREFCA Plan of Action, the seven CIREFCA countries have continued to adopt national policies aimed at improving the international protection and legal status of refugees and displaced persons. In countries of asylum, Governments have implemented legislation aimed at furthering the local integration process. Thus, in Costa Rica, an Executive Decree, issued in November 1992, permits the full integration of some 30,000 Central American refugees by allowing them to opt for resident status. In Mexico, following the amendment of the General Population Law in July 1992 to incorporate the definition of a "refugee", drawing on the broadened definition contained in the 1984 Cartagena Declaration, standardized procedures to determine refugee status were established in August 1992. In Belize, the Government carried out a public awareness campaign with the support of UNHCR in late 1992 to make the population aware of the benefits gained through the presence of refugees in that country.

17. Countries of origin have also made progress in protection-related matters. In El Salvador, documentation activities are closely linked to reintegration programmes. The documentation effort has been divided into two phases: first,

the reconstruction of municipal registries destroyed during the war and secondly, the issue of personal identity documents for an anticipated total of some 500,000 persons. This activity is of crucial importance since it will allow the beneficiaries to register to vote in the upcoming elections scheduled to take place in March 1994. In the case of Guatemala, the collective return of some 2,400 Guatemalan refugees from Mexico was preceded by a series of agreements between the Government of Guatemala, UNHCR and the representatives of the refugees in which basic principles related to voluntary repatriation, including monitoring by UNHCR of the safety of returnees, were reaffirmed.

18. In line with the specific request contained in the Declaration of the Second International Meeting of the CIREFCA Follow-up Committee in San Salvador in April 1992 (CIREFCA/CS/92/11), UNHCR and UNDP are updating the CIREFCA legal document ("Principles and Criteria for the Protection of an Assistance to Central American Refugees, Returnees and Displaced Persons in Latin America" (CIREFCA/89/9)). This task involves an analysis of progress achieved in the adoption and/or application of laws or administrative measures for the protection of asylum-seekers and refugees and in voluntary repatriation and local integration, in the treatment and protection of internally displaced persons and non-recognized refugees. The views of the Governments of the convening countries and other concerned parties will be sought throughout the exercise.

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SPECIAL PROGRAMMES OF ECONOMIC ASSISTANCE

Assistance for the rehabilitation and reconstruction of Liberia

Report of the Secretary-General

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I. INTRODUCTION

1. By its resolution 47/154 of 18 December 1992, the General Assembly, inter alia, called upon the international community and intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations to provide Liberia with technical, financial and other assistance for the repatriation and resettlement of Liberian refugees, returnees and displaced persons and for the rehabilitations of combatants. The Assembly appealed to the international community to provide adequate assistance to programmes and projects identified in the 1992 report of the Secretary-General on emergency assistance for Liberia (A/47/528). The Assembly requested the Secretary-General to continue his efforts to coordinate the work of the United Nations system and to mobilize assistance for the rehabilitation and reconstruction of Liberia, to undertake, when conditions permit, in close collaboration with the authorities of Liberia, an overall assessment of needs, with the objective of holding, when appropriate, a round-table conference of donors for the rehabilitation and reconstruction of Liberia, and to report to it at its forty-eighth session on the implementation of the resolution.

2. The present report describes the emergency assistance activities carried out in Liberia since the issuance of the previous report of the Secretary-General (A/47/528) in October 1992. The question of emergency humanitarian assistance to Liberian refugees in the neighbouring countries is addressed in a separate report of the Secretary-General to be submitted to the General Assembly in accordance with its resolution 47/107 of 16 December 1992.

3. During the period under review, every effort was made to maintain a coordinated United Nations response to all needs arising from the Liberian crisis. The Office of the United Nations Special Coordinator for Emergency Relief Operations in Liberia (UNSCOL), based at Monrovia, was responsible for programmes and other humanitarian activities in Liberia. The Office of the Special Coordinator includes representatives of the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the World Food Programme (WFP), the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) and the World Health Organization (WHO).

4. UNHCR was responsible for field coordination at the subregional level with respect to refugees and returnees. United Nations resident coordinators in the host countries were responsible for national programmes and activities with respect to affected host country populations. At United Nations Headquarters, overall responsibility for coordinating the relief programmes was vested in the Under-Secretary-General for Humanitarian Affairs.

5. Since the outbreak of the Liberian crisis the Secretary-General has issued several appeals to the international community for emergency and humanitarian assistance to Liberia. A preliminary appeal made in December 1990, following the reestablishment of the United Nations presence in Monrovia, requested international contributions amounting to $14.4 million. The consolidated inter-agency appeal of July 1991 requested an additional $135.6 million. As a result of the new emergency situation arising from the October 1992 attack on Monrovia and the spread of hostilities to other parts of Liberia, a special emergency appeal for $7.5 million was issued in November 1992. Donations of

$146.7 million have been received in response to these appeals, as detailed in the annex to this report.

6. Most of the period covered by this report was characterized by continued deterioration of security and socio-economic conditions in Liberia. The October 1992 attack on Monrovia by forces of the National Patriotic Front of Liberia (NPFL) and subsequent hostilities gave rise to massive population displacements and damage to infrastructure. Significant sections of the country were inaccessible to relief agencies for protracted periods owing to the conflict, logistical barriers or the inability to obtain security guarantees for proposed routes of access. These conditions placed large numbers of displaced people in the area north of Kakata, among other populations, in an increasingly precarious situation with malnutrition and life-threatening diseases spreading rapidly.

7. The signing of the Cotonou Peace Agreement on 25 July (see sect. IV below) created the prospect of more effective relief operations and the implementation of programmes of rehabilitation and reconstruction that would ultimately restore Liberia's capacity to provide for the basic needs of its people. A route of access to the population around Kakata was opened from Monrovia. Further progress in emergency relief activities and the transition to rehabilitation and development will hinge crucially on successful implementation of the Agreement, which in turn will require the best efforts of the signatories, the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), the United Nations and the international community at large.

II. SECTORAL REVIEWS

A. Food and nutrition

8. The World Food Programme (WFP) and other providers of food aid, principally the Catholic Relief Services, have been providing emergency food requirements in all parts of Liberia since 1990. Between October 1990 and the end of 1992, Liberia received more than 170,000 MT of different food commodities, of which WFP provided 91,000 MT, or 53 per cent. The total quantity of food distributed through the network of international and national non-governmental organizations (NGOs) during 1992 was about 70,000 MT, of which 21,000 MT were distributed outside Monrovia. Within Monrovia 31,500 MT were distributed through general food distributions, 5,000 MT to vulnerable groups, 2,000 MT to the displaced, 3,500 MT through food for work programmes, 4,000 MT through the school feeding programme and 3,000 MT through the food monetization programme.

9. During the first quarter of 1993, 11,000 MT were distributed, of which 2,000 MT went to areas outside Monrovia, mainly in Bomi and Cape Mount countries.

10. The resurgence of civil conflict from mid-1992 through mid-1993 dramatically increased the number of displaced persons, interfered with agricultural production and made distribution of seed rice and tools in some parts of the country nearly impossible. The harvest for 1993 and 1994 may thus be much lower than initially expected owing to the substantial reduction of the area under cultivation during the 1993 planting season. Agricultural production

in Margibi and Bassa and the important rice-cultivating counties of Lofa, Nimba and Bong is expected to be seriously affected and the harvest far less than required to sustain the current population of these counties.

11. The main elements of the food and nutrition assistance programme during 1992 and 1993 have been general distribution, school feeding and food for work. For the period 1993 and beyond innovative food for work schemes will be needed to encourage community rehabilitation efforts. Other components of the food assistance programme will support resettlement of the internally displaced, returning refugees and demobilized ex-combatants.

12. The food assistance needs for 1993 have been estimated at 105,150 MT of rice, 11,826 MT of vegetable oil, 21,900 MT of pulses, 4,380 MT of corn-soya blend and 437 MT of sugar, for a total of 143,693 MT. As of July slightly less than half that amount had been delivered or was in the pipeline. At a minimum, 75,511 MT of food commodities with a total value of about US$ 43 million were still required for 1993. For 1994, about 116,620 MT valued at about $60 million is required.

13. Expanded logistical support for food after distribution became an urgent necessity after October 1992, mainly to treat pockets of malnutrition in Lofa, Cape Mount, Margibi, Bassa, Bong and other areas that experienced population inflows as a result of the renewed hostilities. Further support in terms of staffing, communication, transport and administration will be required to meet the demands associated with resettlement and reintegration of the war-displaced and former combatants.

B. Health and medical care

14. Conditions in the health sector have remained alarming since the Liberian emergency began. The population in general is at considerable risk of exposure to epidemic diseases as a result of the widespread displacement and communal living in overcrowded conditions. The most prevalent diseases continue to be malaria, malnutrition, diarrhoea, measles, respiratory infections, tuberculosis, worm infections, scabies and sexually transmitted diseases including HIV/AIDS.

15. Following the October 1992 crisis, the stable health conditions achieved in Monrovia during the first three quarters of the year were disrupted by the influx of large numbers of displaced persons into the city centre. In most rural areas, emergency humanitarian health and medical assistance remained the only source of care available to the population. The rising number of displaced persons and the shortage of trained manpower increased the difficulty of providing such services.

16. In the absence of fully functioning local institutions, the provision of health and medical services nationwide depends on the continuation of various projects already being implemented by WHO and UNICEF as lead agencies in the health sector, in collaboration with national and international medical-related NGOs. Following the withdrawal of some international NGOs active in the health sector, local NGOs have come under greater pressure to staff health facilities, supply drugs and equipment and administer health projects. There is thus an

increasing need to support local NGOs, which are assuming a larger responsibility for health service projects than in the past.

17. The focus of health activities during 1993-1994 and beyond will be to improve the health status of the population, to prevent epidemics of communicable diseases such as measles and cholera and to combat childhood malnutrition. Attention should also be devoted to improving the availability of services and providing the required managerial, training and supervisory support for the reopening of health-care facilities nationwide. The underlying strategy is to integrate the isolated, yet individually effective emergency relief projects in the health sector into a consolidated primary health-care system over which the Ministry of Health would eventually assume control.

18. Additional funding will be needed to expand immunization against childhood diseases and build up logistical support to reach those areas where urgent health-care needs are as yet unmet. County, district and urban health-care facilities are in a serious state of disrepair. There are shortages of essential equipment, drugs, blood banking facilities and supplies. Hospital and community health staff need on-the-job training to provide essential services, including maternal and child health care and family planning. Physicians and other paramedics need to be trained to join the limited pool of health personnel. It is also necessary to strengthen county, district and peri-urban hospitals, health centres and clinics as focal points for delivering effective primary health care in the villages and communities.

C. Water, sanitation and power

19. The provision of safe drinking water and general sanitation has been among the more critical needs addressed by United Nations agencies and NGOs in Liberia. Since 1990 the Monrovia population has relied principally on shallow wells and water trucking operations run by UNICEF and international NGOs. A more permanent solution involves rehabilitation of the water treatment plant at White Plains, which, given the extensive nature of the repairs required, will be carried out in stages. While this work is being done, the construction of additional wells and the repair of handpumps are urgently required to sustain the supply of safe water.

20. The provision of safe water through the Monrovia water system requires a stable source of electricity. Prior to the war the Liberia Electricity Corporation provided power from its Mt. Coffee hydro-electric dam and thermal generating units based at Bushrod Island. Current plans call for assistance to rehabilitate the Mitsubishi power plant at Bushrod Island, making use of an $800,000 grant from the Government of Japan.

21. In the rural areas the traditional sources of water are open wells, boreholes with hand pumps, and surface water. Before the war water projects undertaken by the Ministry of Rural Development were in various stages of completion. Since the war, UNICEF and NGOs have been active in the maintenance of hand pumps, installation of new pumps, rehabilitation of old wells and monitoring of the water quality. New shallow wells and boreholes are also being constructed.

22. In the wake of the October 1992 crisis, with its massive influx of displaced persons, the accumulation of garbage in Monrovia posed serious health problems. The Monrovia City Corporation, which had the main responsibility for garbage disposal, became inactive following the crisis. UNICEF, together with several NGOs, became involved in garbage disposal operations to avert a major sanitation disaster and assisted the Monrovia City Corporation in reactivating its garbage disposal service. The City Corporation will need additional assistance to rebuild its capacity during 1993 and 1994.

23. Sanitation services in rural areas were inadequate even before the war. Since the emergency, the focus of rural sanitation projects has been construction of a limited number of pit latrines in areas of high population concentration.

24. As the process of resettlement begins, safe water and sanitation services will have to be extended to resettlement sites and sustained until communities can begin to provide for their own needs. Bilateral contributions are expected to complement efforts coordinated by the United Nations in this sector.

D. Children in difficult circumstances

25. The ongoing hostilities in many parts of the country following the October 1992 attack on Monrovia worsened conditions, especially for children and their mothers, necessitating the intensification of humanitarian and social services. Most of the assistance to children in difficult circumstance has been provided through a collaborative effort of several national and international NGOs, together with WHO and UNICEF as the lead United Nations agencies.

26. Health-related assistance for children concentrates on the physical rehabilitation of disabled children and counselling for war-traumatized children. These programmes are coordinated through the Children's Emergency Committee, which was set up during the crisis with UNICEF, the Ministry of Health, the Child Assistance Project, a consortium of NGOs, and the Save the Children Fund as the initial members. WHO was mandated to play a supervisory role in view of its technical expertise. WHO conducted the initial workshops to train about 40 social workers in the programme for children in difficult circumstances.

27. Displaced, orphaned and abandoned children are assisted by trained social workers who have handled over 9,000 cases in Monrovia and some 1,000 in Bomi and Cape Mount counties. Assistance to children in the rural areas includes an intensive tracing and family reunification programme and a residential centre for those who cannot be placed with families in villages. In the interior sections of Liberia, UNICEF expects to continue supporting several orphanages for displaced children, whose numbers have increased dramatically.

28. The Benedict Mennie Rehabilitation Centre for Children, which provided services for children with war-related injuries, was destroyed by the recent hostilities. The orthopaedic workshop has been renovated at another site and has commenced manufacture of artificial limbs. Two mobile units are also available to assess injuries and disabilities and offer community-based rehabilitation services in rural areas.

29. The repeated eruption of hostilities in the country has intensified the severe war trauma experienced by children. The war trauma counsellors' training programme has been reactivated and counselling services are being expanded. Special workshops are being offered for schools to facilitate the readjustment of students and teachers, and a war affected-children's home established in Monrovia now has about 71 children in a residential programme.

30. Other assistance in Monrovia includes an agricultural vocational training programme for about 500 street children. Emergency assistance provided to single and displaced mothers with children since the October 1992 crisis will have to be continued for the better part of 1993 and 1994. Day care centres have been set up at the general market and other sites in Monrovia, and have been combined with literacy programmes, training for income generation and a small-scale loan programme.

31. Since November 1992 UNICEF, at the request of the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), has intervened to assist child soldiers detained by the ECOWAS peace-keeping forces (ECOMOG) and the armed forces of Liberia in the same facilities as adult prisoners of war. The detained child soldiers aged between 9 and 15 years receive intensive psychological counselling, literacy training and medical care in a structured environment.

32. In addition to the child soldiers detained in Monrovia, large numbers of children have been fighting as soldiers of various warring factions in other parts of Liberia. A new residential programme for the rehabilitation of young former combatants is planned in anticipation of a general demobilization. The programme will be modeled after the war-affected children home in Monrovia and will offer literacy and vocational training and counselling for a minimum of 500 children accommodated at the site in Bomi county donated by the United States Embassy.

E. Education and training

33. Management of the Liberian education sector was problematic even before the current emergency. The population of Liberia is young, with 43 per cent below 15 years of age. A study undertaken in 1988 showed that only 50 per cent of the school-age population was attending school. Illiteracy rates were found to be high, especially among women, of whom 71 per cent were estimated to be illiterate. Over 70 per cent of the teachers were under-qualified and textbooks were in short supply.

34. It is clear that almost four years of continued hostilities have left the already ailing education sector in Liberia in a state of near paralysis. A detailed situation analysis has not been possible owing to the war situation, and the current strategy for assistance pursued by UNICEF and its national and international NGO partners has been mainly of an emergency nature. 1991 saw the emergence of tutorial programmes or "emergency schools" numbering over 500 in Monrovia alone. Many more were opened in other parts of Liberia, encouraged by the WFP school feeding programme and the distribution of school supplies by UNICEF in many parts of the country.

35. Support for the education sector during 1993-1994 will aim at restarting educational activities in war-affected parts of the country as conditions begin to normalize. In view of the anticipated demobilization of tens of thousands of combatants, of whom some 60 per cent will be school aged, the renovation of existing school facilities, which are badly in need of basic furniture and equipment will need to receive high priority. Particularly attention should focus on providing vocational training courses, for which most demobilized combatants have expressed a preference.

F. Shelter

36. The need for the development of an emergency shelter programme in Monrovia has become critical owing to the partial destruction of the housing stock and the influx of displaced persons. A longer-term shelter sector strategy is also required to address the underdevelopment of housing facilities in both urban and rural parts of the country.

37. The United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat) has begun an assessment of requirements for an emergency as well as a medium- to longer-term shelter programme to respond to the needs of up to 750,000 returning refugees as well as hundreds of thousands of internally displaced in various parts of the country. The shelter programme will be closely linked with plans for repatriation, resettlement and reintegration. Provisions will be made for the construction of emergency shelters at designated reception points and the development of reinsertion and resettlement community sites.

G. Agriculture

38. The agricultural support programme focuses on providing assistance to the rural population to ensure their survival and the resettlement of agricultural communities. Major activities in this sector include the distribution of tools, seeds and other essential farming inputs to approximately 170,000 agricultural households in accessible rural communities throughout Liberia. United Nations Volunteer agronomists have been collaborating with community organizations and NGOs to expand the distribution of agricultural inputs and provide advice to improve the performance of small-scale agriculture. A small amount of money generated from the sale of agricultural inputs is re-invested into rural communities to support reconstruction and sanitation projects.

39. In the framework of the Secretary-General's appeal of July 1991, FAO fielded eight missions in 1992 under its Technical Cooperation Programme and formulated a number of projects that can directly support the revitalization of agricultural production nationwide. These projects include reactivation of rural blacksmithing, provision of farm inputs backed up by technical advice to farmers; cassava processing, marketing development to assist small-scale producers, and support for the redevelopment of the livestock and poultry industries in view of the depletion of livestock during the crisis. Artisanal fishermen in communities along the coast are also to be assisted with fishing gear, equipment and fuel on a revolving fund basis to help reactivate fishing activities. A seed technology project is designed to help meet the yearly shortage of quality seeds, especially rice seeds.

40. The main thrust of the 1992/93 agricultural programme has been the provision of farm inputs to ensure the cultivation of swamp and upland rice and other crops such as cassava and vegetables. Given the limited distribution of seeds and tools prior to the 1993 planting season, a timely response by donors to the current appeal for assistance in the agricultural sector is important in order to support land preparation starting in the last quarter of 1993 and planting in the first quarter of 1994. In addition to addressing the immediate demand for agricultural inputs for the 1993 and 1994 cropping seasons, there is also a need to undertake activities that will lay the basis for future rehabilitation, reconstruction and development programmes. To this end, FAO will be fielding an agriculture sector review mission supported by UNDP funding.

H. Relief management support

41. The office of the United Nations Special Coordinator has played a leading role in building up local NGOs, which have assumed a central role in relief and rehabilitation activities in Liberia. The local NGOs have organized community welfare teams responsible for the distribution of relief items, implementation of community projects and monitoring of population movements.

42. Operational centres were established by the United Nations in various parts of the country to provide the basis for community outreach and support to local NGOs. The first operational centre was established in Gbarnga, followed by Zwedru, Harper and Voinjama. Temporary centres were set up as necessary to respond to local needs and conditions. In the centres located outside Monrovia, United Nations Volunteers were responsible for coordinating the emergency services and providing specialized services in areas such as health and agriculture.

43. Most operational centres became inactive following the October 1992 emergency. Assuming that peaceful conditions prevail in the country, the operational centres can be reactivated to serve as the functional basis for emergency assistance as well as rehabilitation and reconstruction.

44. Significant expenditures will be required in 1993-1994 to support staff including logisticians, consultants, administrative and local support staff and United Nations Volunteers, to support local NGOs, and to finance an expanded network of centres.

III. ASSISTANCE BY MEMBER STATES AND ORGANIZATIONS OF THE UNITED NATIONS SYSTEM

45. In addition to the activities described above, several member States and organizations of the United Nations system have provided information on assistance rendered to Liberians during the period under review.

A. Member States

Denmark

46. In 1992, Danish emergency assistance to Liberia amounted to DKr 5,500,000 channelled through the International Federation of the Red Cross (IFRC), UNICEF and UNHCR.

Germany

47. In 1992, Germany contributed humanitarian assistance to Liberia in the amount of DM 364,900 in total. One project was executed by the ICRC amounting to DM 350,000. An additional DM 14,900 were contributed for the financing of rice seeds.

48. In the current budget year of 1993, an amount of DM 750,000 has thus far been provided out of humanitarian assistance funds. These funds are being used for the financing of a UNICEF project in the medical field.

49. In view of the warlike events in Liberia, the Government of the Federal Republic of Germany has suspended its development cooperation with Liberia for the time being.

Sweden

50. During the present fiscal year (1992/93), SKr 5.2 million, from the appropriation for disaster relief, has been allocated to Liberia. Of this amount, SKr 2 million has been channelled into an appeal by the Department for Humanitarian Affairs of the Secretariat for internally displaced persons and the rest to contributions through Swedish NGOs.

B. Organizations of the United Nations system

United Nations Development Programme

51. Since the beginning of the crisis UNDP has been assisting the emergency humanitarian operations in Liberia by providing the services of the United Nations Special Coordinator and other administrative staff. Together with his team of UNDP international and national colleagues, the Special Coordinator has led the United Nations system's emergency relief operations throughout the country. In the absence of a country-wide government structure, the four operational centres established with the assistance of UNDP and others in strategic rural areas continued to enhance the capacity of both United Nations and NGO programmes to deliver emergency relief. In addition to the UNDP contribution of $3.9 million under the Emergency Logistics Support Project, which has been supporting the emergency operations of the United Nations system and NGOs in Liberia since November 1990, other donors have contributed as follows: Canada $262,013; Netherlands $470,968; United Kingdom $309,750; WFP $1,063,668; and USAID $499,500 (total including UNDP $6.5 million). Under its Humanitarian Programme, UNDP has also provided $150,000 for the reintegration of returnees and $150,000 for emergency assistance to displaced persons.

52. A major concern of UNSCOL/UNDP in supporting emergency programmes has been to facilitate the transition to rehabilitation, reconstruction and development. Efforts started in 1992 in this direction were, unfortunately, thwarted by the sudden events of October 1992. Under a rehabilitation and reconstruction planning project, with a total UNDP contribution of $1,271,680 ($971,680 in indicative planning figures (IPF) and $300,000 from the Humanitarian Programme), activities have already commenced to carry out a comprehensive sectoral needs assessment on a country-wide basis, with the full participation of Liberians themselves, with a view to formulating programme and policy options for the consideration of the new united government when it is formed after the elections. For the immediate future, therefore, UNDP support will focus on rehabilitation, reconstruction and the resumption of development, including reintegration of demobilized combatants, returnees and displaced persons.

53. UNSCOL/UNDP continued to support two local non-governmental organizations that are assisting in the distribution of relief supplies including food, education materials, agricultural tools and seeds and health supplies. These are Special Emergency Life Food (SELF) in Monrovia and Liberians United to Save Humanity (LUSH) based in Gbarnga.

54. With regard to paragraph 6 (b) of Assembly resolution 47/154, UNDP will stand ready to assist the government in organizing the round-table conference of donors for the rehabilitation and reconstruction of Liberia as soon as the opportunity presents itself.

United Nations Population Fund

55. The country programme for Liberia was approved in 1987 for five years in the amount of $3 million. At the outbreak of the civil war in 1990, programme expenditures totalled almost $2 million. At this time, field dependent projects remain suspended owing to the security situation. Office activities, such as the review and analysis of existing demographic data and related workshops for government staff on population policy implementation, are receiving modest support.

56. UNFPA is providing funding support for government activities in connection with World Population Day as well as for the series of national activities in preparation for the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development. Later in 1993, and as may be advised by the United Nations Special Coordinator for Liberia, based on the security situation, UNFPA intends to field a preliminary fact-finding mission to Monrovia with the objective of advising on the possibilities for resuming operational activities in the population field.

World Food Programme

57. Although there were signs that the regional peace process, and with it prospects for repatriation and resettlement of the more than 2 million refugees and displaced persons, had made progress in 1992, the renewed outbreak of hostilities between the National Patriotic Front of Liberia (NPFL) and ECOMOG in October 1992 demonstrated the need for continuing food assistance in the four affected countries (Liberia, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea and Sierra Leone).

58. Since the inception of the civil strife emergency in December 1989, WFP assistance to the Liberian and Sierra Leonean refugees and internally displaced populations has been channelled through a series of six country-specific and three regional emergency operations, as well as three regional protracted refugee and displaced person projects, for which a total of nearly 539,000 tons of basic food commodity commitments have so far been allocated, with actual deliveries amounting to approximately 300,000 tons. Additional food aid has also been supplied to Liberia and Sierra Leone on a bilateral basis. As from January 1992, WFP has further assumed overall responsibility for coordinating the mobilization and delivery of most food consignments from various donor sources.

Joint food aid assessment mission

59. The streamlining of the refugee registration system and some spontaneous repatriation to Liberia have contributed to an overall stabilization in the refugee case-load since 1990. However, the recent civil unrest in both Liberia and Sierra Leone has resulted in new refugee influxes and an increase in the number of internally displaced persons. Based upon these developments, a joint WFP/UNHCR refugee food aid assessment mission to three of the four affected countries (Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea and Sierra Leone) was undertaken in November 1992, with the additional participation of a major donor representative (United States of America) and two NGOs (the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies and Médecins sans Frontières/Belgium).

60. The mission recommended reducing the total beneficiary case-load slightly to 2,028,000 Liberian and Sierra Leonean refugees and internally displaced persons in the four affected countries as the planning figure for 1993/94.

Safety net for vulnerable groups and new influxes

61. The assessment mission considered the maintenance of supplementary feeding essential as a safety-net for vulnerable groups and new influxes of displaced persons, particularly in Liberia where persistent insecurity has sharply reduced the food supply in Monrovia and in Lofa County. An additional supplement of corn-soya blend (125 gr/day) and rice (100 gr/day) will, therefore, be allocated to 395,500 vulnerable group beneficiaries in three of the affected countries (Côte d'Ivoire as the exception) during 1993/94.

Developmental considerations

62. As the refugees and internally displaced persons have for the most part been integrated into host families within local communities of the same ethnic origins in the asylum countries, the promotion of food self-sufficiency and economic self-reliance has proved to be far more successful than in other major refugee and displaced person feeding operations in Africa. With a few exceptions in Liberia and Sierra Leone, the nutritional status of the refugees and displaced populations is generally satisfactory and, in fact, often better than that of the local populations. The rich agricultural potential of the four affected countries and the Governments' liberal land tenure policy have enabled the beneficiaries to cover most of their daily food consumption requirements through their own local production and independent financial resources.

Considerable employment and economic income-generating market activities also exist for refugees in both Côte d'Ivoire and Guinea.

63. Within this context, the integrated agricultural development projects covering both the refugee/displaced and local populations will be continued and intensified through the funding support of UNHCR, WFP, other United Nations agencies and major donors in order to maximize the beneficiaries' local cereal and tuber production, with a view to achieving food self-sufficiency. Necessary non-food item inputs, e.g. tools, seeds and fertilizers, must be provided to ensure adequate donor support for these schemes.

Institutional responsibilities

64. The feeding operations for refugees and displaced persons in each of the four affected countries are managed by government-established national and regional interministerial coordination committees, working in close liaison with the United Nations system (UNDP, UNHCR, UNICEF and WFP), the international donor community and operational NGOs (League of Red Cross Societies, ICRC, Médecins sans Frontières, etc.). In Liberia, the Interim Government of National Unity supported by ECOMOG ensures the security and protection of the United Nations organizations and NGOs distributing relief assistance in Monrovia, while the Ministries of Planning and Health of the NPFL coordinate relief assistance provided by United Nations agencies and through NGOs in the interior of Liberia.

65. In May 1993, the governing body of WFP, the Committee of Food Aid Policies and Programmes, approved a second extension of food aid deliveries under the protracted refugee operation with a total value of $115 million, covering the year 1994.

United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat)

66. In July 1992, Habitat held a meeting at its headquarters with a delegation of Liberian Government officials headed by the Deputy Minister of Planning and Economic Affairs. Areas for technical cooperation were discussed, including a human settlement sector study and a needs assessment with special reference to post-war housing needs and the formulation of a short-term strategy for displaced persons and returnees.

67. Following a request from the Government, Habitat has allocated funds to undertake the needs assessment, and a mission to Monrovia took place in June 1993, in cooperation with UNDP and UNSCOL, to assess human settlements conditions, particularly for displaced persons, returnees and refugees.

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

68. Coverage by the FAO Global Information and Early Warning System of the crop and food supply conditions in Liberia is constrained by the prevailing instability in the country. Nevertheless, conditions are monitored and supply/demand analyses are made through FAO representation, remote sensing, and information on food aid allocations and deliveries. Through its Technical Cooperation Programme, FAO is providing agricultural inputs (rice seeds and hand

tools for a total value of $210,000) to enable the Liberian farmers to return to food production and to contribute to the rehabilitation of the agricultural sector.

World Health Organization

69. WHO launched an appeal for Liberia in October 1992, to which the Government of the United Kingdom responded favourably. From its donation of $130,000, WHO has supplemented emergency health programmes in Liberia funded from its regular budget through the provision of life-saving drugs and medical supplies to the displaced population in chronic areas, and national blood bank and blood transfusion services.

70. In addition to material assistance, WHO also provided technical support, including training.

World Bank

71. Staff of the Bank met with the Liberian Minister of Economic Development in Washington, D.C. in June 1993. The Ministry cooperated with the United Nations Special Coordinator on the preparation of a brief report on issues for post-war reconstruction and international assistance, which was made available to the Bank.

72. Recently, the Bank has done some work on a report related to demobilization, and it is currently looking at the prospects for reconstruction planning in Liberia.

International Monetary Fund

73. Owing to the still adverse political and social climate, the Fund has not been in a position to provide financial assistance to Liberia, or to help the Liberian authorities in elaborating appropriate economic and financial policies. Nevertheless, the Fund staff has maintained contact with the authorities, including at the recent annual meeting of the African Development Bank, and remains ready to commence a policy dialogue as soon as conditions permit.

IV. SUPPORT FOR THE PEACE PROCESS

74. Apart from the provision of humanitarian relief assistance, the United Nations has taken a number of measures aimed at promoting a peaceful settlement of the Liberian conflict. By its resolution 788 (1992) of 19 November 1992, the Security Council called upon all parties to the conflict in Liberia to cooperate in the peace process initiated by ECOWAS; decided, under Chapter VII of the Charter of the United Nations, that all States should implement a general and complete embargo on all deliveries of weapons and military equipment to Liberia, with the exception of weapons and military equipment destined for the sole use of the peace-keeping forces of ECOWAS in Liberia, and requested the Secretary-General to dispatch urgently a Special Representative to Liberia to evaluate the situation.

75. The diplomatic efforts undertaken by the Special Representative of the Secretary-General were instrumental in the signing of a peace agreement by the Interim Government of National Unity of Liberia, NPFL and the United Liberation Movement of Liberia for Democracy (ULIMO) at Cotonou, Benin, on 25 July 1993 (see S/26272, annex). The Cotonou Agreement provides for a cease-fire, disarmament and demobilization of the warring parties, formation of a transitional government, and the holding of general and presidential elections. ECOMOG and a United Nations observer mission are to supervise the implementation of the Agreement. The parties also agree that every effort should be made to deliver humanitarian assistance to all Liberians and to create conditions that will allow refugees and displaced persons to return to their places of origin.

76. The signing of the Cotonou Agreement offers promise of the resolution of the political and military crisis in Liberia and thus of the resumption of normal economic and social life. However, it will take some time before the Agreement is translated into real improvements in the welfare of the Liberian people and thus it will be necessary to maintain the current range of humanitarian assistance activities for the immediate future. In addition, the programme must be expanded to respond to certain requirements arising from the Agreement, in particular the return of refugees, the resettlement of displaced persons, and the demobilization and reintegration of troops. The programme should also cover needed demining activities. Finally, the programme should reflect a shift in emphasis from relief activities towards reconstruction and rehabilitation. It is anticipated that an appeal by the Secretary-General encompassing the above will be issued in the near future.

77. The continuation and expansion of the humanitarian assistance programme are essential not only for the welfare of the people of Liberia but also for the creation of a climate conducive to the successful implementation of the Agreement. A particular concern in this regard is the establishment of incentives and conditions to support the disarmament and demobilization process. This concern can perhaps best be met by a programme of community development that would generate employment and training opportunities for the former combatants in their place of origin.

ANNEX

List of contributions to the emergency humanitarian programme for Liberia

(in United States dollars)

Donor	Total amount
Austria	41 390
Belgium	69 444
Canada	1 709 007
Denmark	2 653 496
Finland	1 352 964
France	29 000
Germany	4 960 887
Ghana	148 870
Italy	200 404
Japan	6 551 450
Luxembourg	47 500
Mauritius	5 000
Netherlands	3 171 610
Norway	2 257 009
Spain	476 621
Sweden	4 479 407
Switzerland	70 000
United Kingdom	3 242 661
United States	83 341 357
European Economic Community	14 438 721
CARITAS	40 000
Direct contributions by United Nations agencies	16 964 390
United Nations Philatelic Society	5 000
Rotary International	59 615
Child Survival and Development Committee	300 000
TOTAL	146 673 670

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DEVELOPMENT AND INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC COOPERATION: EFFECTIVE MOBILIZATION AND INTEGRATION OF WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

Report of the Secretary-General

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* A/48/150 and Corr.1.

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I. INTRODUCTION

1. In its resolution 46/167 of 19 December 1991 on women, environment, population and sustainable development, the General Assembly requested the Secretary-General to include in the report on effective mobilization and integration of women in development, to be submitted to the Assembly at its forty-eighth session, a section on the role of women in environment and sustainable development.

2. The present report analyses the role of gender in environment and sustainable development. The overall objective of the report is to illustrate how gender concerns should be incorporated in the implementation and monitoring of Agenda 21, adopted at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development. 1/ The report contains an analysis of the role of women in Agenda 21 and gives concrete illustrations and suggestions on how to include gender analysis in the development of policies and programmes for sustainable development and the monitoring of Agenda 21. It draws on the preparations for priority themes on development for the Commission on the Status of Women, the preparations for the International Conference on Population and Development, and the preparations for the Fourth World Conference on Women, which will include the World Survey on the Role of Women in Development, to be completed in 1994, and the platform for action for the Conference.

3. The term sustainable development brings together two strands of thought about the management of human activities: one concentrating on development goals, the other on controlling or limiting the harmful impacts of human activities on the environment in order to meet, as expressed in the report of the Brundtland Commission, "the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs". 2/ It is important to stress that, in any discussion of sustainable development, development goals should be as important as ecological sustainability. However, meeting economic, social and political goals obviously has to be sustainable in an ecological sense since human life and well-being depend on this.

4. Within the United Nations system there is a renewed consensus that in order to achieve sustainable development effective mobilization and integration of women are essential.

II. WOMEN IN AGENDA 21: A GENDER ANALYSIS

A. Gender analysis and effective mobilization and integration of women in development

5. In dealing with the effective mobilization and integration of women in development, two different approaches have historically been followed. One has been to see women as an important group in society and to deal with them separately. The other has been to seek to incorporate references to women in strategies where their concerns are perceived to be relevant. The latter approach has been termed "mainstreaming". Often both approaches have been used. In practice, the two have been perceived as counterbalancing. Mainstreaming has been seen to involve a danger that women's concerns will be overwhelmed by a

sense that development is gender-neutral and that in practice, therefore, paying particular attention to women in policy-making is irrelevant. Mainstreaming may imply a risk of disappearing in the stream. A counterbalance has been to articulate women's concerns in a comprehensive and visible way as an addendum to strategies, which, however, implies a risk that women in development will be seen as a separate, isolated phenomenon and may give such a strategy a welfare-orientation. It implies that mobilizing women for development as a separate activity is a form of charity.

6. As was noted in the previous report of the Secretary-General (A/46/464), effective mobilization and integration of women in development cannot be an exercise whereby women are introduced as separate components of plans and programmes. Nor is the "mainstreaming" of women's issues in economy-wide policies limited to the design of compensatory programmes aiming at alleviating unexpected negative effects. Rather, recognizing the behaviour of women as agents of social and economic development should be an integral part of the design of policies aiming at affecting the functioning of the entire economy. This constitutes a formidable challenge for policy makers and also for workers in the field of women in development.

7. Over the past few years, a different approach has begun to be articulated to express the mobilization and integration of women in development; it has been termed "gender analysis" and involves seeing development processes through what is termed a "gender lens". The basis of the analysis 3/ is to examine how gender relations, defined as the relative positions in society of men and women, affect their ability to participate in development. These positions are defined by the socially constructed and culturally variable roles that women and men play in their daily lives.

8. At the heart of this definition of roles is a sexual division of labour around what are termed the "productive" and "reproductive" functions of society. The productive function has to do with the way societies produce goods and services and has historically been assigned economic value in most development paradigms. The reproductive function, in contrast, has to do with how a society reproduces itself over generations and maintains its coherence; it involves such diverse activities as child rearing, socialization, care for the elderly and the disabled, and community activities that reinforce societal solidarity. This function has historically been left out of economic calculations.

9. While neither function is the exclusive preserve of either sex and men and women perform both functions, in practice women have been assumed in modern societies by tradition and culture to be responsible for the reproductive function, while men have been assumed to be responsible for the productive. The assignment of monetary or economic value to the roles dedicated to the productive function has led to the creation of a structural relationship of inequality, the reproductive function having been assigned no economic value.

10. A gender approach, which looks at the underlying roles and functions of both sexes and their value to society, rather than at women in isolation, provides a basis for challenging conventional approaches to development with a view to creating a more sustainable development paradigm. In the gender approach it is recognizing that although economic development may be possible without raising the status of women, sustainable development is not. Gender as

a structural relationship between women and men is manifested in inequality in labour markets, political structures and the household, and is reinforced by custom, law and specific development policies. 4/ Gender analysis is the systematic effort to document and understand the relative situations of men and women within a given context, for example, the impact of economic and social policies. A gender-aware approach examines the social relationship between women and men in order to identify existing obstacles, which may open up new cultural, social and economic dimensions that may otherwise be overlooked.

11. Political, social or economic institutions or policies, programmes and projects are not gender-neutral, even if planned and implemented as though they were. In fact, they may even reproduce unequal gender structures by preserving existing gender roles. Efforts to integrate women in development have often failed to account for the fact that policies have a different impact on women than men, and that the responsiveness and possibilities of women are determined and often limited by gender relations.

12. Since changes in gender relations require structural changes in the society, a long-term perspective needs to be adopted that is compatible with the concept of sustainable development. Furthermore, by highlighting gender roles, policy makers should be able to determine where and how to intervene. One of the main practical outcomes of integrating gender analysis in the planning process is the recognition that unpaid reproductive work, mainly carried out by women, should be seen as a fundamental component of human resource formation and should be distributed with equity between the sexes, the family, the State and the market.

B. Gender in Agenda 21

13. As was the case with the International Development Strategy for the Fourth United Nations Development Decade (General Assembly resolution 45/197, annex, of 21 December 1990), Agenda 21 applies both a mainstreaming and a women alone approach.

14. Chapter 24, entitled "Global action for women towards sustainable and equitable development", is entirely focused on women. It contains a set of guidelines on ways of integrating women in the process of sustainable development. A gender approach has been taken in this chapter, including such matters as the sharing of household tasks by men and women on an equal basis (para. 24.3 (d)). The chapter also calls for the analysis of the structural linkages between gender relations, environment and development (para. 24.8 (d)). Emphasis is placed on the conditions necessary for raising the status of women and on the rights of women as human beings involved in development.

15. Similar to other major policy statements, chapter 24 does confer upon women the status of a major societal group; other chapters deal with other perceived major groups, including children, youth and indigenous people. It can be noted that, taken as a group, men are not treated in a specific chapter of Agenda 21, which could imply that mainstream development is inherently male.

16. Of greater significance is the explicit or implicit inclusion of gender concerns in the other chapters of Agenda 21, including a recognition of the

particular value added by women to efforts to achieve sustainable development. For example, women and women's groups, rather than men's groups, are called upon in many instances to take the lead in local environmental protection and other developmental actions, reflecting the demonstrated concerns of women's groups for the issue (see paras. 12.24 (a), 14.17 (a) and 14.91 (b)).

17. Such calls upon women reflect the fact that many environmental problems need to be solved within the existing gender structure since women are now responsible for much of the agricultural subsistence production and household work, including fetching fuel and water. Similarly, in industrial countries affected by toxic waste, women have a major role in selection of consumer products. Women and women's groups are called upon to "facilitate health" (para. 6.31), to receive training in "home and maternal health care" (para. 6.27 (c)(i)) and to manage waste, "particularly household waste" (para. 21.46 (c)). There will be a challenge for women, especially poor women, who already have a double, or triple, burden of carrying out most of the household work, caring for children, sick and elderly in combination with wage labour and/or food production. Implicitly these burdens will have to be shared by men addressed by the application of science and technology.

18. When discussing women, Agenda 21 gives a particular priority to poor women and those in developing countries. For example, in chapter 3 on combating poverty and in chapter 5 on demographic dynamics and sustainability, women-centred, women-managed reproductive health care is called for (see paras. 3.8 (j) and 5.51). Chapter 4, which deals with patterns of unsustainable consumption, emphasized "the significant role played by women and households as consumers and the potential impacts of their combined purchasing power on the economy" (para. 4.27) in order to change unsustainable patterns of consumption and production. In this, the relative role of women and men in industrialized countries is largely missing, especially the present role of women in socializing consumption values and their role as consumers. In contrast, chapter 5, entitled "Demographic dynamics and sustainability", focuses on the role of women and women's groups in population programmes, which is less explicit about the role men should play for the success of family planning programmes (see paras. 40-49 below).

19. Agenda 21 demonstrates a strong international will to integrate women fully, and it constitutes an important recognition of the key role that women will have to play in the process of development in order to make it sustainable. In the monitoring of Agenda 21 it will be important to go beyond the traditional insertion of women into the existing development agenda and through the implementation of Agenda 21 to interpret the agenda from a gender perspective. For example, an emphasis in the monitoring of Agenda 21 can be given to the redistribution of work relating to the reproduction function as defined in gender analysis. It would be expected that many activities now exclusively undertaken by women should be progressively transferred and distributed not only between men and women, but also among the family, the State and the market.

20. In order to design successful strategies for sustainable development it will be necessary to gain an understanding of the ways in which gender relations determine the inequitable distribution of and access to resources. It will also be necessary to understand the ways in which gender relations and sets of values, based on gender roles, determine the valuation of contributions to the

development process, as well as what is considered an important contribution and what is not. In order to illustrate this, three examples of gender analysis are presented in the following section, in the fields of poverty, family planning and urbanization.

III. ILLUSTRATIONS OF A GENDER APPROACH TO SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

21. The application of gender analysis to issues of sustainable development can be seen in terms of specific problems on which work is under way in connection with the Fourth World Conference on Women and the International Conference on Population and Development. These issues suggest an important gender dimension in the analysis of poverty, urbanization and population growth, which are important aspects of Agenda 21.

A. Poverty and gender

22. Although poverty is a global phenomenon, it is not gender neutral. Women and men tend to experience poverty differently because of their difference in status, and poverty tends to fall more heavily on women, who are in general disadvantaged. However, the strategies recommended for poverty alleviation are not based on an analysis that systematically takes into account gender relations and the way they are biased against women. As stated by the World Bank, attacking poverty is not primarily a task for narrowly focused antipoverty projects, but a task for economic policy at large. 5/ At the same time, it must be recognized that economic policies are not gender neutral and that they affect women and men differently.

23. As noted by the World Bank, various dimensions of access to resources within the family and beyond are affected by gender. 6/ Women are generally among the poorest of the poor because of the unequal access they are accorded on the basis of gender. Cultural norms, also reflected in national legislation, effectively limit women's participation in and access to education, waged labour, health care, legal autonomy and personal freedom. Processes of life-long discrimination against women effectively limit their full participation in the development process. All this sets the stage for a repetition of poverty in subsequent generations.

24. Poverty has important environmental dimensions. The poor often have few options for coping with the risk of starvation other than more intensive extraction of their own or of open-access resources. The impoverished, who are more likely to be women than men, perceive no alternative to over-using resources stocks today even at cost to their livelihood tomorrow. Studies show that uneducated women tend to be less productive, are employed in less well paid jobs and are less able to use their initiative to protect their environment. They are also likely to marry younger and are less likely to use family planning. Women, who perform most of the household work and who are largely responsible for subsistence food production in many regions, frequently have no option but to collect wood despite ensuing deforestation and soil erosion. Alternatively, women may have to compensate for the lack of fuel by preparing less fully cooked food and by not boiling water - the latter essential for

disease prevention, thus creating a deteriorating health situation, which in itself lowers the quality of life and generates poverty. Studies in Nepal have shown that women have to spend so much time looking for wood that their farming activities suffer appreciably. 7/

25. Because of these responsibilities, women are particularly affected by environmental problems such as deforestation, soil degradation, and conditions of poverty resulting in inadequate housing, especially in urban areas, poor sanitation and lack of clean water. Increasingly, time will have to be spent looking for fuel or fetching water. Case-studies have shown that these problems in combination with natural disasters have forced many people, especially women and children, to become "environmental refugees". In Lesotho, for example, where 85 per cent of women are reported to be affected by poverty, 20 per cent of women can be regarded as belonging to environmentally endangered population groups. 8/ If present trends continue, by the year 2000 over one billion people may become "environmental refugees". Unable to make a living from the land, many will flock to the cities.

26. Households are often viewed as units, and it is assumed that income of household members is pooled and spent in such a way as to maximize their joint welfare. However, case-studies from poor and richer countries alike make clear that men and women have differing expenditure priorities. 9/ The distribution of consumption often favours men and income-earning adults. Poor households are more likely to invest in education of boys than girls. While women's income is almost exclusively used to meet collective household needs, men tend to retain a considerable portion of their income for personal spending. Studies in India confirm that female wage workers have a greater say over family resource allocation and household decision-making than women who do not bring in outside income.

27. It has further been found that participation by females in the labour market had a statistically significant positive effect on the energy intake of young children. This indicates that by investing in women the achievement may be twofold: it raises their status by giving them more bargaining power, and their increased income is likely to benefit their dependants. It also indicates that gender roles and legislation need to be changed in such a way that it becomes the desire, obligation and responsibility of both sexes to contribute fully to the welfare of their families and the upbringing of their children.

28. In policy-making in a large number of countries, families are still often assumed to be the traditional two-generational nuclear family consisting of a woman, a man and their children. However, the wide range of family structures must be recognized and taken into account, with special focus on the poor female-headed households. In many developed countries the poorest include large numbers of single-mother households. A large proportion of poor households are headed by women, especially in rural Africa and in the slums of urban Latin America, and the increasing number of female headed households has led to a feminization of poverty.

29. Women living in poverty are competent actors in the development process and in the effective management of scarce resources, but they are often not allowed to perform this task fully. They are in a situation of responsibility without power. Their role as managers of natural resources make them central to

community-based sustainable development. However, this does not imply that only women and women's organizations should be burdened with the task of managing natural resources and providing social services to society. In addition to recognizing women's important role and enabling them to participate fully in the process of sustainable development, the final goal must be equality between women and men and equal distribution of the reproductive, productive, community management and community leadership roles.

30. One of the key issues in effective responses to women's poverty is the empowerment of poor women to rectify the current lack of participation in decision-making. This depends to a great extent on the ability of women's groups to intervene in the interacting operations of State agencies, markets and community networks and institutions by mobilizing, exerting pressure, educating and organizing to strengthen the command of poor women over resources, beginning with command over their own persons and their own labour.

B. Urbanization and gender

31. The major role of women, especially young women, given today's rapid processes of urbanization and increasing migration flows, is striking, and the many problems migrant women face have been highlighted in several recent meetings organized by the United Nations. 10/ In most cities today there are contradictions between sustainability and development: most of the cities that can be judged positively by development criteria (where social, economic and political goals are met) have among the highest per capita draws on environmental capital. Most of the world's cities with the least draw on environmental capital are the ones which perform worst in development terms.

32. During this century, urbanization has become a major ecological driving force involving vast transformations in the use of land, air, water and energy resources and an unprecedented redistribution of human population. Most developing countries have experienced very rapid growth in their urban populations without the needed expansion in the provision of urban infrastructure and services and in the ability to provide safe and adequate shelter. Because of their ascribed gender roles, women, to a much greater extent than men, will have to make up for the absence of these services. This situation, in combination with, for example, lack of education, makes it more difficult for women to look for or seize economic opportunities, which has serious consequences for their ability to support themselves and their families financially.

33. One characteristics of urban women, whether in developed or developing countries, is the double burden they often have to carry, combining housework with income generating work. Urban women's gender roles manifest themselves in three basic patterns, two inside the home and one outside. Urban women constitute an "invisible urban support structure". Since they have to make up for the lack of public support services and social network, they allocate most of their time to reproductive work and community management work in the home and in the neighbourhood. Because of this, urban women are likely to do productive work at home, for example, as unpaid labourers in family-based production, or near home in the informal sector. Finally, if they seek employment outside the home, as is often the case of young, single migrant women, the above patterns

are likely to be reproduced in the types of jobs available to them, such as domestic or generally unqualified, labour-intensive and under-paid jobs.

34. Women's reproductive work is neither recognized as work, nor is it given an economic value. Women's needs are rarely given priority in government provided services, and there is a frequent lack of housing programmes, provision of health clinics, child-care centres or transportation (which is generally scheduled to serve the needs of the income earners). Governments have also been known, for example, to tear down squatter settlements or make collection of wood for fuel in the urban areas illegal, without providing any other solutions for poor urban people, and especially poor urban women, who are struggling for the survival of their families. Making wood collection illegal might seem necessary in a country with rapid deforestation, such as, for example, Ethiopia, but it was found that such a policy forced the above 73,000 urban women and children in Addis Ababa to earn their livelihood illegally, by collecting and selling fuelwood to the city dwellers, in order to survive. 11/

35. Urban poverty has become particularly problematic in countries undergoing structural adjustment programmes, with women generally the worst affected. Elimination of food subsidies, falling wages and rising prices reduce women's spending power and they must spend more time finding ways to satisfy their family's hunger, travelling farther to cheaper shops or markets. Thus, a decreasing family income increases the time that urban women have to spend on unpaid work, and the financial cuts in social services, education and health schemes add to their overwork. The more time a woman has to spend on household work, the less time is left for income generating work, and the situation might eventually reach the breaking point for poor urban woman heads of household.

36. The increasing number of female headed households in the urban areas are also among the poorest of the poor and therefore more exposed to environmental hazards. Indeed, poor women in urban areas face a threefold threat to their health. Because of their role in childbearing, their capacity to earn an income is diminished by their reproductive role. Female headed households therefore frequently live in the most environmentally hazardous areas, for example, close to polluting industries. Second, since girls and women are largely responsible for water and fuel collection, they suffer the most if supplies are contaminated or difficult to obtain. Finally, if biomass fuels or coal are used for cooking and/or heating on open fires, girls and women inhale larger concentrations of pollutants over longer periods of time.

37. The inevitable urbanization of the developing world provides major policy challenges for the management and development of population policy, provision of infrastructure and welfare. These policy challenges must be taken up as a matter of urgency. Planners should focus on improving the situation for urban dwellers by assisting them to improve their own situation as well as by providing services.

38. Among the most important measures would be to enable women to participate fully in urban management. At first this might have to be done within the existing gender structure, but always with a view to empowering women and changing the gender roles. As the initial step, policies should be directed at empowering poor urban women to improve their own situation by introducing

services that will enable them to take advantage of economic opportunities within the urban economy.

39. However, in the long run, measures will have to be taken to distribute the reproductive work between the sexes and the private and public actors in the urban centres. This would require support systems for parents in the formal sector, opening non-traditional economic activities or fields of training to women, equal access to education and policies combating discriminatory attitudes in society, the working world and the family (see CEDAW/C/1992/6). Among other important policies to combat discriminatory attitudes in society would be the elimination of stereotyping of women and men in mass media and in teaching materials in schools.

C. Gender and family planning

40. The ability for women to control their fertility and choose the number and spacing of children is widely considered a crucial factor for raising the status of women and for improving the health of women and their children and their economic situation. At the same time it is important to recognize that while limiting population growth may be one factor in achieving sustainable natural resource use, it cannot be considered in isolation from other influences that determine access to and use of natural resources.

41. There are strong links among gender, poverty, population and the environment. Minimal education and limited income-earning possibilities of poorer women lower the costs of foregone economic opportunities while the women bear and raise children. Poor parents often need more children to provide for their old-age security and to provide labour. Environmental degradation appears to reinforce links between poverty and high fertility. Degradation of land resources worked by women reduces the women's productivity and the economic advantage of working the land. Degradation of tree, pasture, and drinking water resources increases the time needed for fuel-wood gathering, livestock pasturing, and water fetching - traditionally women's tasks, but also tasks that children can do, thereby increasing children's value to parents. These links are stronger in areas where female fertility is already high.

42. While studies have shown that more equitable distribution of resources in a society, better access to education and health for both sexes, low infant mortality and measures taken to raise the status of women can lead to reduced fertility, these issues are not addressed in family planning programmes. Economic development in tandem with distribution of resources and the political will to raise the status of women are important factors for reduced fertility in the long run. Although this has been recognized in theory, it has only been translated into practice to a limited extent in the delivery of family planning services. Far too often programmes still operate in a "gender-vacuum", to a great extent ignoring the underlying factors that cause women to voluntarily or involuntarily give birth to many children, thus attempting to cure rather than prevent. Further, men are not addressed by family planning programmes to the same extent as women, and are more often sceptical about these programmes. Therefore, family planning programmes would benefit from taking on a much broader approach, based on gender analysis. Equality between men and women in the access to family planning is stressed in the World Population Plan of

Action, adopted at the United Nations World Population Conference, held at Bucharest in 1974, 12/ as well as in the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women 13/ and in article 12 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (General Assembly resolution 34/180).

43. Few women in the world today can exercise their basic human right to decide freely and informedly on the number and spacing of their children, or indeed even to influence the size of their families: men and women are not equal partners in decision-making, whether at the family level or the national level. Since women are valued mainly as mothers and wives in many cultures, the age at marriage is often very low, and the first pregnancy occurs at an early age, when the woman is neither physically nor psychologically prepared for having children. Women's lack of control over their bodies and over sexual contracts often leads to early sexual initiation, early and frequent pregnancies and great exposure to sexually transmitted diseases and HIV/AIDS. 14/ Untreated sexually transmitted diseases can easily cause infertility, which is a major problem for women in many countries.

44. Early pregnancies and continued births throughout the productive years, with or without emotional, practical and financial support from the father, leave many women in an economically dependent position, from youth to old age. Family planning programmes tend to overlook not only the gender dimension of family planning, but also the age perspective; the different stages of a woman's life that determine her possibilities to make decisions related to fertility. Family planning programmes need to look into ways of intervening at all stages of a woman's life cycle, improving the status of women in a life-course approach, providing sex education for girls and boys, and counteracting such situations as the low age at marriage, lack of education and higher level of economic dependence of girls and women.

45. Until recently, family planning programmes were often accused of blaming poverty on women's fertility. Lately however, a consensus seems to have been reached that the desire to control the number and spacing of children is almost universal among all women, regardless of economic or social position. The focus has shifted to stressing the importance of increasing women's access to information and services related to family planning. Family planning programmes have also been criticized for taking on too much of a top-down approach towards women, by not involving women enough in the planning and implementation process.

46. Other criticisms include lack of information and respect, lack of attention to user satisfaction, lack of involvement of users in the designing of programmes, using women as "guinea pigs" for new birth control methods, insufficient contraceptive research, sterilization and a lack of proper health precautions regarding use of IUDs, information or after-care. Top-down approaches in family planning policies and programmes, based on "cost-benefit" types of calculations of various risks for women depending on the contraceptive method used, are not compatible with a development strategy based on human rights and respect for the individuals concerned.

47. There has been a trend towards making birth control more "woman centred", thus absolving men of their responsibilities for fertility control and placing the burden increasingly on women. It is assumed that since women are the ones

giving birth, they have the full responsibility for protecting themselves against unwanted pregnancies, a pattern which is the same in industrialized and developing countries. However, while women are given the main responsibility for protecting themselves against unwanted pregnancies, many women do not have the choice of whether to use a contraceptive or not, owing to their gender subordination coupled with poverty, cultural and religious norms as well as lack of access to and information about contraceptive methods.

48. The empowerment of women has not been stressed enough in family planning programmes. Programmes tend to be carried out within existing gender roles, rather than attempting to promote equality between the sexes, thus running the risk of being less effective in the long run. Women are still perceived to be passively waiting to benefit from policies and programmes, when in fact in reality they are far from passive, but rather blocked by their lower status and poverty from participating fully in the development process, including making decisions regarding their own fertility. Family planning programmes should attempt to involve and empower women and men to participate actively in the designing and implementation of such programmes. Shifting from a couple to an individual perspective by involving men is today one of the major ideas in the promotion of equality and effective family planning. Information on contraceptives, including the wide range of those available, should be more widely distributed, and technologies themselves better adapted and based on women's and men's experiences.

49. In order to be effective in the long run, family planning programmes should not only focus on attempting to reduce fertility within existing gender roles, but rather on changing existing gender roles in order to reduce fertility. While this has to some extent been recognized in policy documents, it is less visible in the implementation of family planning programmes. This will mean involving girls and boys, women and men at all stages in their lives, using a life-course approach, in order to empower women and men to gain control over their lives and their fertility. It will also involve changing the culturally set gender roles for women and men into a more balanced sharing of reproductive, productive and community management and leadership roles between the sexes. It will require coordination between family planning programmes, Governments and non-governmental organizations, as well as the political will to raise the status of women.

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

50. A condition for achieving sustainable development is the advancement of women, which in turn requires reshaping of the development agenda so that it is based on an understanding of how equality between women and men might improve the functioning of all areas of social, political and economic life and the global environment. This must be done through the self-empowerment of women, a process in which women gain control over their own lives through a process of knowing their rights and claiming those rights at all levels of society at the international, the national and the household levels. This involves modifying the gender roles of men and a redistribution of the reproductive and productive work so that it is shared evenly between the sexes and public and private actors.

51. Agenda 21 contains an important recognition that women play a determining role in this process. During the review and monitoring of Agenda 21, both explicit and implicit gender factors can be utilized to strengthen implementation of the Agenda at all levels.

52. A prerequisite for effective review and monitoring is the development of realistic, usable and understandable indicators of progress towards sustainable development. The development of these indicators should be based on a thorough understanding of gender relations in a society and the ways in which such relations influence environmental concerns. It would be desirable at an early stage to agree upon and include a set of indicators in the review of Agenda 21 that would indicate progress in the advancement of women. In order to fully understand the links between gender and sustainable development, research should be conducted on the influence of gender on the complex interaction between environmental factors and socio-economic factors. They could include the links between gender, access to education and paid work, the distribution of resources, health and the environment.

53. It is important to take a gender approach in the review of all the issues dealt with in Agenda 21. It has been suggested (see E/CN.17/1993/2) that the Commission for Sustainable Development should review the implementation of the chapters of Agenda 21 in nine broad clusters, and that five of the clusters, including that of "Roles of major groups" (chaps. 23-32), should be reviewed together annually. Since the roles of women and men and of girls and boys in sustainable development span the clusters, the Commission should, in addition to analysing the role of major groups, use gender analysis as a general framework for the review of Agenda 21, especially for the overall review which is planned to take place in 1997, in order to prepare for the proposed special session of the General Assembly in that year. This review should also benefit from the analysis leading up to the Fourth World Conference on Women and the conclusions emerging from it.

54. The idea that the role of men in sustainable development is as important as the role of women should be taken into account in the monitoring process. This would give an opportunity to examine how men's roles could be modified to facilitate sustainable development. Indeed, no sustainable development can be obtained without a change in men's gender roles, as well as women's.

55. By its resolution 1993/12, the Economic and Social Council urged the Commission on Sustainable Development, the Inter-Agency Committee on Sustainable Development and the High-Level Advisory Board to develop appropriate mechanisms to ensure that the objectives and activities relating to the role of women in sustainable development are supported, the objectives met and activities and other recommended actions implemented, and that Governments and all relevant United Nations entities monitor and report on the subject. An effort can be made by the Secretariat to propose how this can best be done.

Notes

1/ Report of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, Rio de Janeiro, 3-14 June 1992, vol. I, Resolutions adopted by the Conference (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.93.I.8), resolution 1, annex II.

2/ World Commission on Environment and Development, Our Common Future (Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1987), p. 8.

3/ Diane Elson. Male bias in the development process (Manchester University Press, 1991), p. 1.

4/ Report of the Seminar on the Integration of Women in Development, Vienna, 9-11 December 1991, p. 5.

5/ World Bank, World Development Report 1990: Poverty, p. 4.

6/ World Bank, Gender and poverty in India (Washington, D.C., 1991), p. 1.

7/ UNFPA, Population, Resources and the Environment, The Critical Challenges (New York, 1991), p. 69.

8/ See Filomina Chioma Steady (ed.), National Reports. Selected Case Studies on the Role of Women in Sustainable Development.

9/ Diane Elson. Male bias in the development process (Manchester University Press, 1991), p. 183.

10/ See, for example, reports from the United Nations Expert Group Meeting on the Feminization of International Migration, held in Aguascalientes, Mexico, 22-25 October 1991; the UNESCO International Seminar on Migrant Women in the 1990s, held in Barcelona, Spain, 26-29 January 1992 and the United Nations Expert Group Meeting on International Migration Policies and the Status of Female Migrants, held in San Miniato, Italy, 27-30 March 1990.

11/ A. Rodda. Women and the Environment (London, Zed Books Ltd., 1991), p. 49-50.

12/ Report of the United Nations World Population Conference, Bucharest, 19-30 August 1974 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.75.XIII.3), chap. I.

13/ Report of the World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace, Nairobi, 15-26 July 1985 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.85.IV.10), chap. I, sect. A.

14/ For an extensive discussion on this topic, see Jacques du Guerny and Elisabeth Sjöberg, "Inter-relationship Between Gender Relations and the HIV/AIDS-epidemic: some possible considerations for policies and programmes", AIDS (London, Current Science), forthcoming.